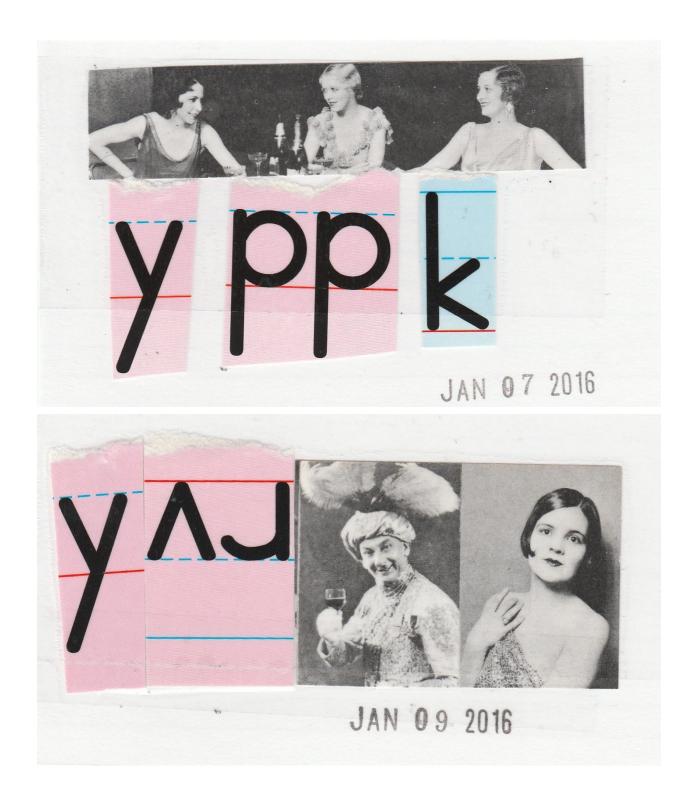
jim leftwich visual poems ongoing research 2016 -vol. 6



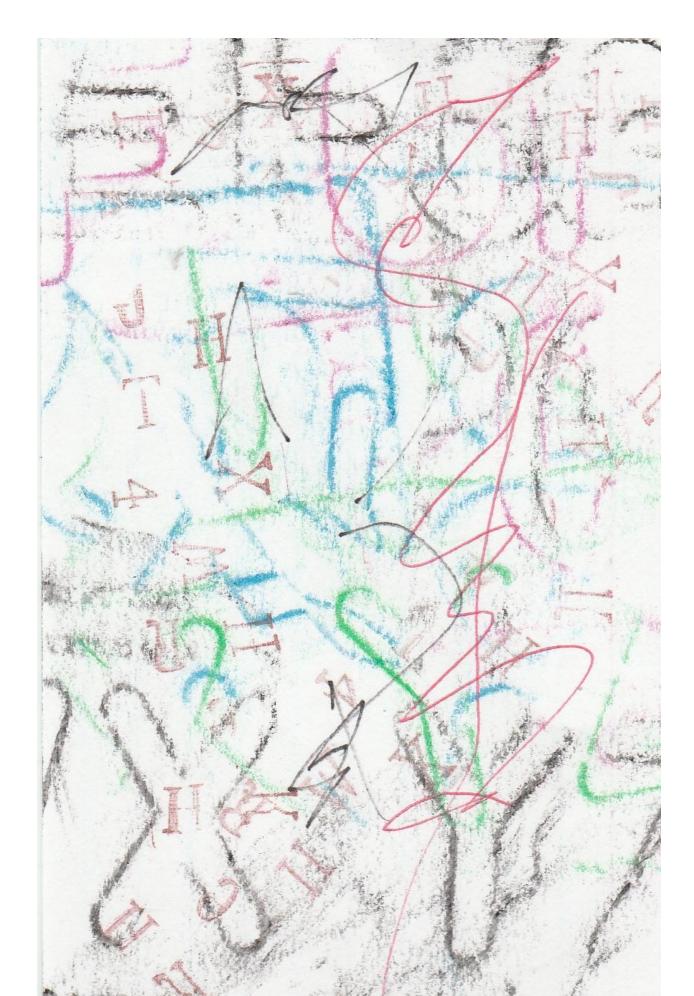


radioactivity \,rad-e-o-,ak-'tiv-ət-e\

CHEMISTRY and PHYSICS. The continuous emission of energetic subatomic particles (alpha or beta rays), or of gamma rays, from certain elements or isotopes of elements. It occurs as the result of radioactive decay; see *radioactive decay* and *curie*.

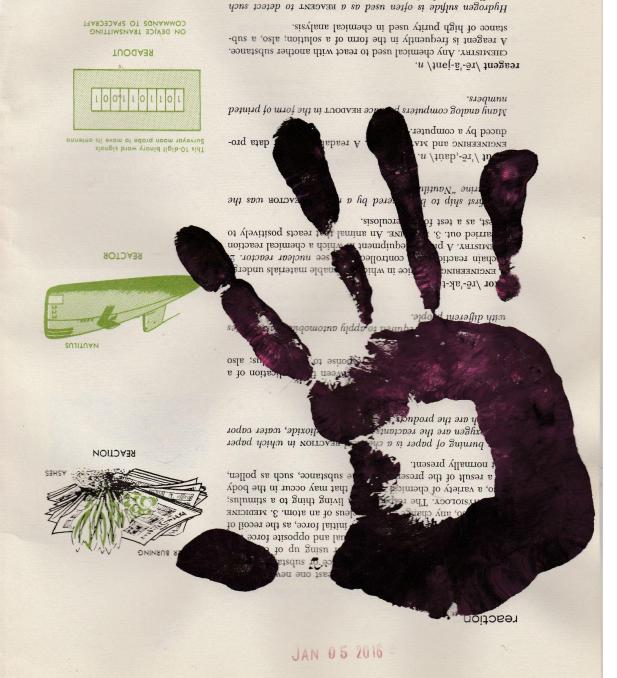
The RADIOACTIVITY of an element is not affected by chemically combining it with a second element to form a compound.











metallic ions as lead and cadmium in an unknown solution.



- * Alignments of random points
- Clustering illusion

- Constellation
- Droodles

- Hindeight bias
- Hot-hand fallacy

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- Perceptions of religious imagery in natural phonomena
- Ramsey theory

- Texas sharpshooter fallacy
- Ulam spiral

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MERCEARCE PROMESES

Situation Awareness: Theory and Application (1st ed.). USA: Assigne Publishing, Ltd. ISBN 0-7546-4198-8.

ramjet engine

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ramjet engine \'ram-jet 'en-jen\

AERONAUTICS and ENGINEERING. A type of jet engine whose motion through the air causes air to be continuously compressed

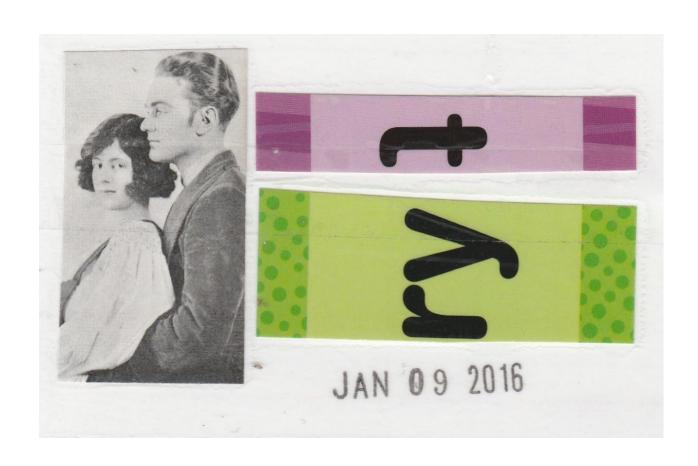


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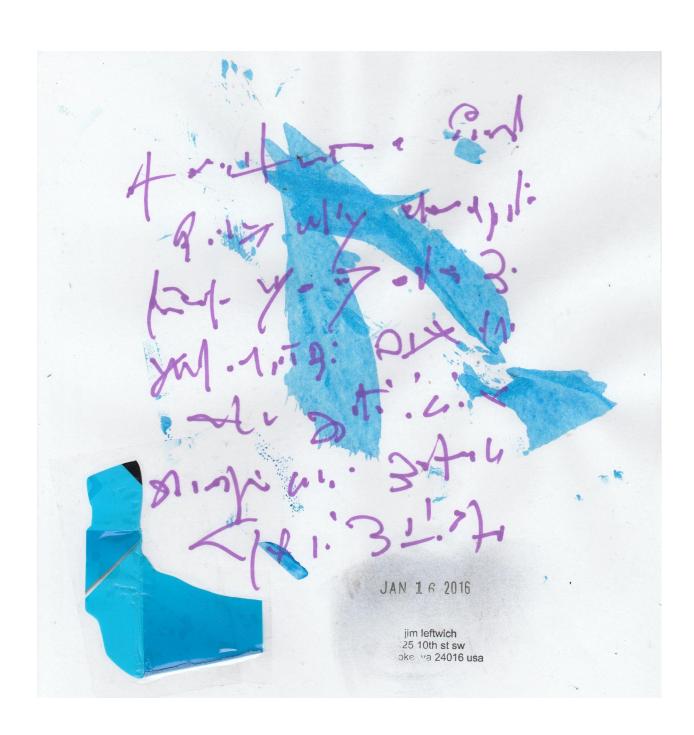


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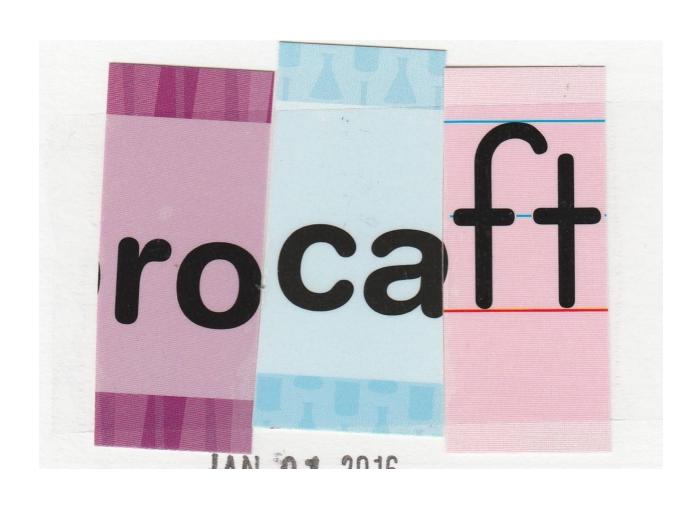


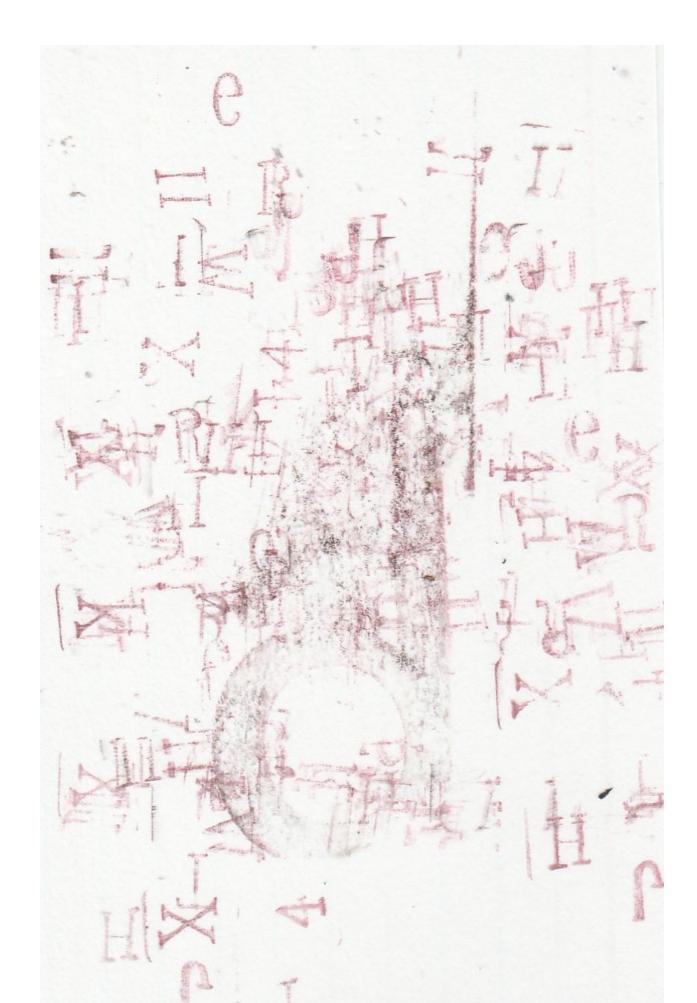


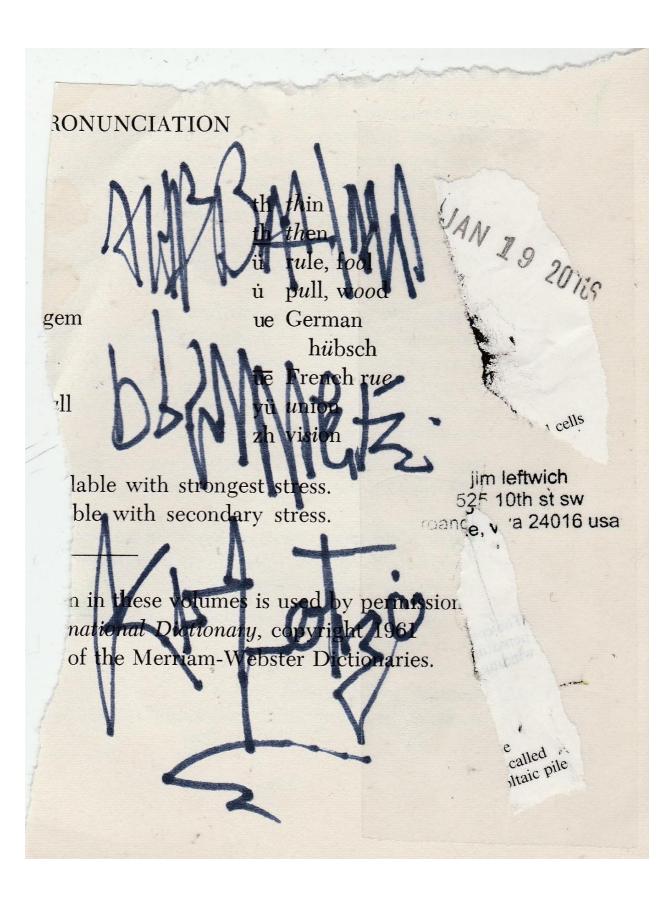


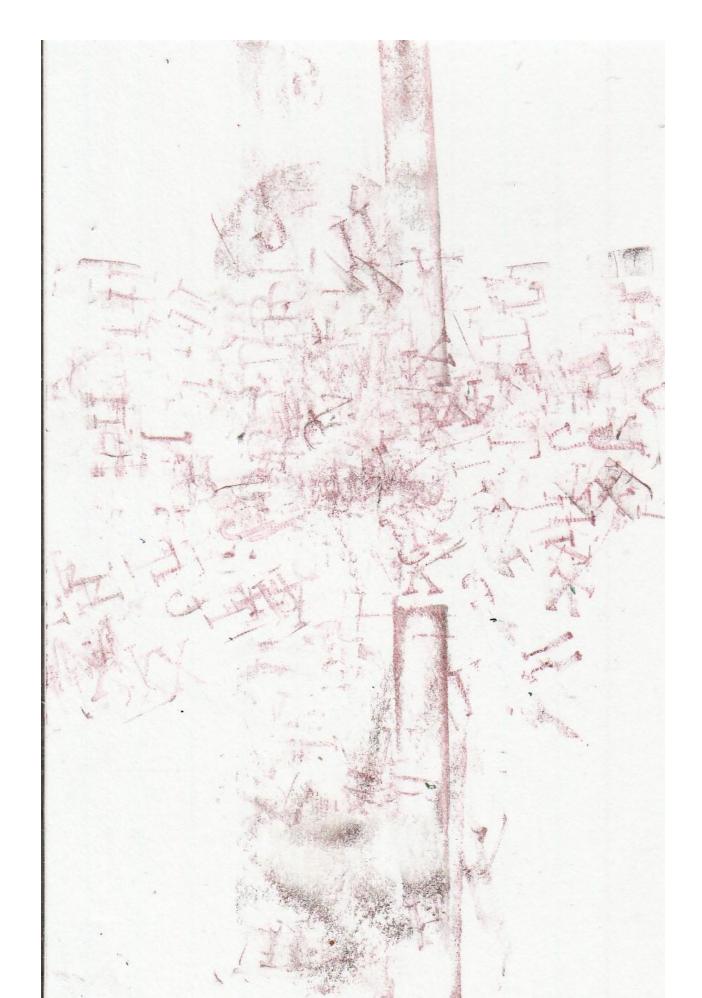














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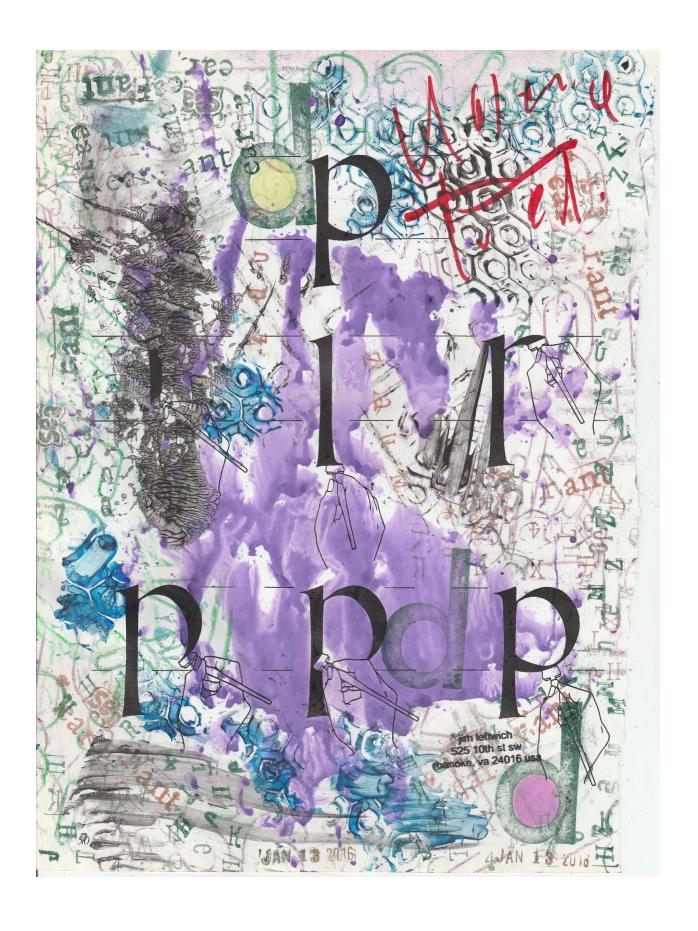




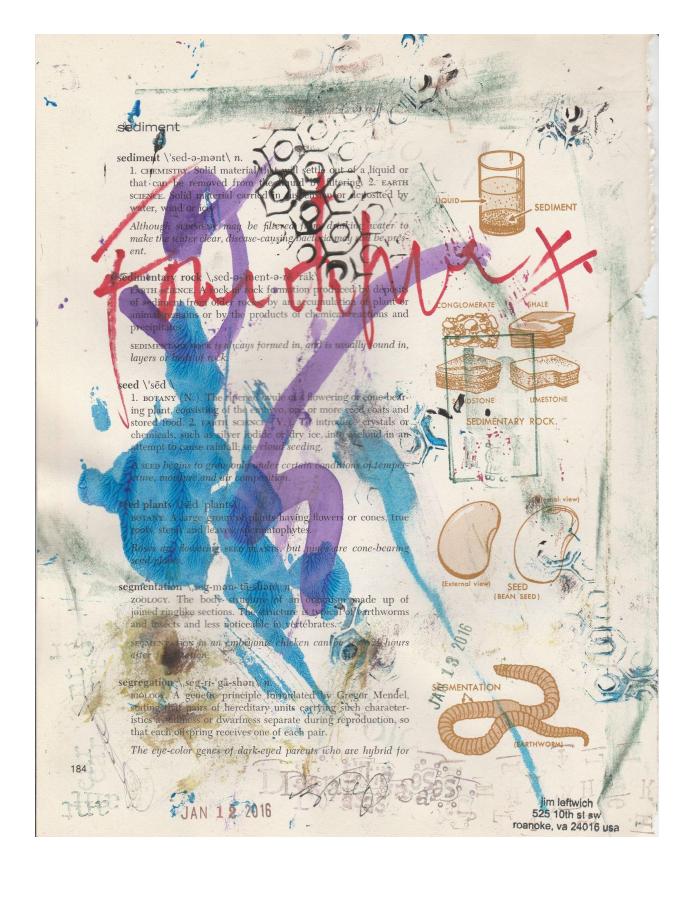




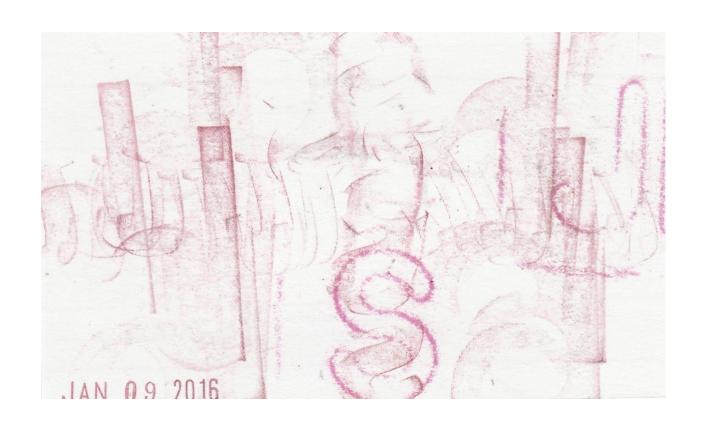








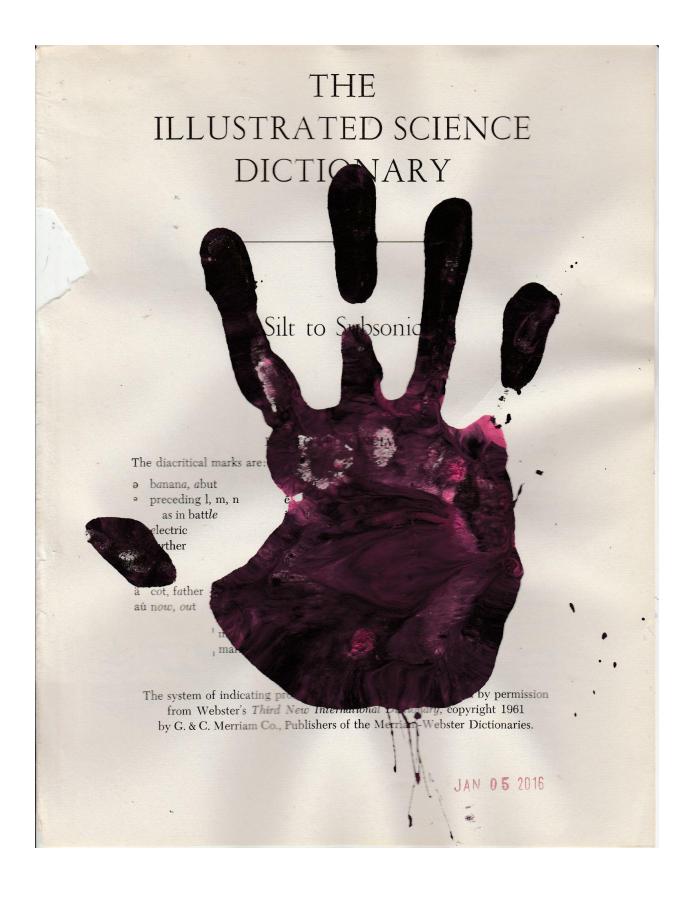




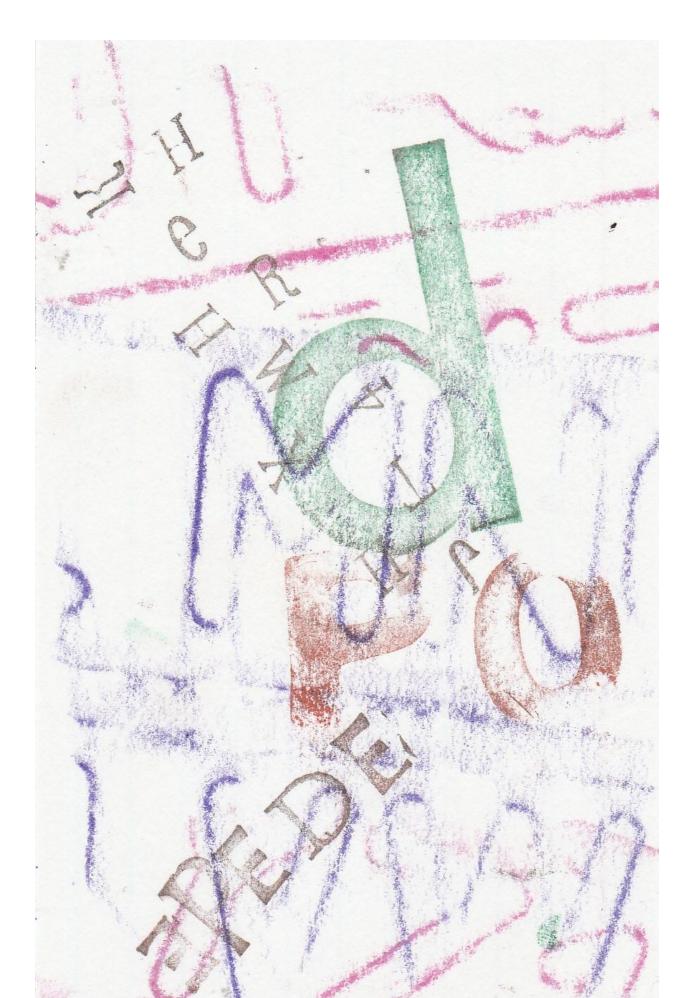


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1. PHYSICS. A bent tube, generally shape like in upside-down U, with one and longer than the core. It was air pressure a ligravity to move fluid over a larrier to a lower level. 2. zoology. In certain mollusks, a libular haped organ that carries water to the gills or that kpels I mid from the fill chamber.

A SIPHON will not work in a vacuum.

skeletal muscle / skel-ət-əl 'məs-əl

ANATOMY. Coluntary muscle, connected to the bones, that moves sor page of the body

A SKELL FAL MUSC is a wall opposed by another muscle called an amagonistic muscle.

skeleton \ skel-\text{\text{-}}\ n\ n.

I. ANATOMY and ZOOLOGY. The rigid framework of an animal's body, usually jointed to allow movement. In vertebrate animals, it is an internal framework of bone, of cartilage or of bone and cart lage. 2. The supporting framework of a structure.

M my invertebrate animals, such as insects and crustaceans, have an external SKELETON, or exoskeleton.

sl wskal\n.

ana romy and zoot per. That part of the skeleton that makes up the bony art of the head of veriebrate animals.

In man, the KULL is made up of 8 cranial bodys and 14 facial bones.

slant height \slant 'hat\

MATHEMATICS. The altitude of any lateral nee of a regular pyramid or frustum of a regular pyramid; of a right dreular cone, the length of any one of as a ments.

The lateral area of a gular pyramid is equal to one half the product of the perioder of its base and its sont Helder.

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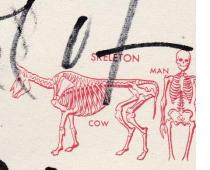
Although SLATE splits easily into thin layers, it is difficulty split in any other direction.

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EATH CIFEE. Rain that has been frozen, or partly frozen, into the part (c. s; also, a posture of rain and snow.

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JAN 07 2016

produced, plutonium-239, is relatively stable and fissionable. It releases approximately the same number of neutrons as does uranium-235; i.e., between two and three on the average for each fission, and its fission cross section for slow neutrons is even higher than that for uranium-235.

With these discoveries it became apparent that the production of plutonium could be a substantial benefit to be gained through the capture of neutrons by uranium-238. For this purpose it would be necessary to design a reactor to favour such captures, but without using up so many neutrons that the chain reaction could not proceed.

Though a natural uranium chain reaction is a pos source of heat and radiation, the necessary quantity of material is too bulky to serve as the basis for an atomic bomb. The process may, however, be used to produce plutonium, which then can be fabricated into a bomb without having to rely on uranium-235. The design and construction of a large plutonium-producing nuclear reactor, therefore, had a high priority during the early days of the Manhattan Project, it was plutonium, in fact that was employed in the first nuclear explosion in a nuclear-weapons test at

Alamogordo, New Mexico, on July 16, 1945

The Chicago pile. The world's first nuclear reactor was constructed in the United States at the University of Chicago under the direction of Enrico Fermi. It achieved criticality (a self-sustaining chain reaction) on December. 1942. The reactor consisted of 400 tons of graphite, six tons of uranium metal, and 50 tons of uranium oxide, with control rods made of cadmium. Instruments placed inside the pile measured neutron intensity. When the cadmium rods were withdrawn gradually, at a certain point the neutron intensity began to increase rapidly, signalling the start of a self-sustaining nuclear chain reaction. The cadmium rods were reinserted before any appreciable amount of heat developed and before the neutron and radiation levels became hazardous. Later in the day the historic news was transmitted by telephone from Arthur Holly Compton in Chicago to James B. Conant at Harvard University in the following guarded language: "Jim, you will be interested to know that the Italian navigator has just landed in the New World."

The experiment confirmed what had been expected; criticality was reached even more easily than anticipated. Plans were formulated for the construction of four other reactors in the U.S., and the work of harnessing the atom

for peaceful purposes was under way,

Reactor types. Thermal and fast reactors. The long-run advantages of a reactor that operated with fast neutrons, without a moderator, had been recognized by 1946. With sufficient enrichment, criticality could be achieved despite the lower cross ction for assign with fast neutrons. Because fission produce to the fest neutrons supply slightly more neutrons are the agenthey provide extra neutrons beyond the to tee other hairs reaction going. Calculatio trabium-238 in or near the a resulted from occasional gease slightly

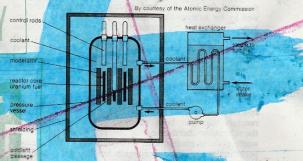
upply of the More im extra neu to produce plutonium onsumed. In other work ruse the next fission, was ns or losses caused by capture in street and his there would still be more that of houteon of The stage remaining to w acardum-25b be capture would then convert a relically possible to to plutor us O. It that broad consume and in complete e mendeusly increasing the

ng the way uranion a selection of nergy To test the edges, an experience to be the reaction reactor, the EBR-I, we could in a specific and the attornal Laboratory. In reactor to a sound to define rods of highly enriched uranity. 23 source index by a blanker of natural uranium to provide the result material in which

the plutonium could be formed.

Operating successfully for the first time during 1951, the reactors demonstrated not only the feasibility of breeding but also the feasibility of generating electricity with nuclear power. Reactor heat was transferred with a liquid mixture of sodium and potassium to a steam generator that provided power for a small electric turbine.

The two reactor concepts, one making use of slow neutrons (generally referred to as thermal neutrons), and the of two fundamental classes of reactors: thermal reactors and fast reactors. Most of the wide variety of reactor types that have since been developed are of these two classes.



igure 57: Components of a power reactor design generate high-pressure steam

Plutonium-production reactors. The production of plutonium for military purposes was expanded in the United States after World War II with the construction of additional graphite-moderated reactors and a new series of large heavy-water reactors (HWR). (Heavy water is water in which the conventional hydrogen atoms have been replaced by deuterium, the hydrogen-2 isotope.) The heavywater reactors were also used to convert lithium into tritium (the hydrogen-3 isotope) for use in thermonuclear

Materials-testing reactor. One of the early needs in reactor development was a materials-testing reactor that could supply a high flux of neutrons to test their effects on materials and thus provide necessary information for the design of other reactors. Neutron flux is the number of neutrons crossing a unit area each second.

Pressurized water was selected to serve as both moderator and coolant in the first materials-testing reactor. The fuel was highly enriched uranium embedded in aluminum, arranged in the form of parallel plates. Water was pumped through at high speeds to carry heat away, thus allowing the reactor to operate at a high power density with a correspondingly high neutron flux. The reactor was placed in full-scale operation in 1952.

Aircraft-propulsion reactor. The use of nuclear power for aircraft propulsion was proposed immediately after the end of World War II. The U.S. Air Force began a project known as Nuclear Energy for the Propulsion of Aircraft (NEPA); but controversy over the potential hazard began at once, and, as the complexities of the problem became more evident, the project was discontinued in 1951.

Responsibility for the design of an aircraft engine was shifted to the General Electric Company and the National Reactor Testing Station in Idaho where test facilities could be built. But in the end enthusiasm for the project was overcome by doubts about feasibility and safety. The goal of places that could fly for long periods without refuelling did not seem to justify the development expense nor the hazards that would inevitably be associated with carrying nuclear reactors in airplanes, and the project was abandoned in 1961.

Reactors for a nuclear navy. The use of nuclear reactors for the propulsion of naval vessels has been highly sucmatters, during World War II, the U.S. Navy was interested in nuclear energy before the establishment of the Manhattan Project as the result of research undertaken at the Naval Research Laboratory.

Studies of the use of nuclear reactors as a source of energy for submarine propulsion began in 1946. The po-tential advantages over oil as a fuel were obvious. With nuclear fuel, it would no longer be necessary to surface to recharge batteries, and the energy from uranium for a given bulk would be far higher than that from oil, thus making possible almost indefinite operation without refue] impleftwich

Nuclear energy for submarines

525 10th st sw roanoke, va 24016 usa

The oreeder reactor

The

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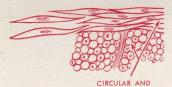


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SMALL INTESTINE

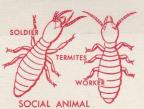




SMOOTH MUSCLES

LONGITUDINAL CELLS





JAN 15 2016

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ENGINEERING. A procefrom their ores. It ustemperature in the p

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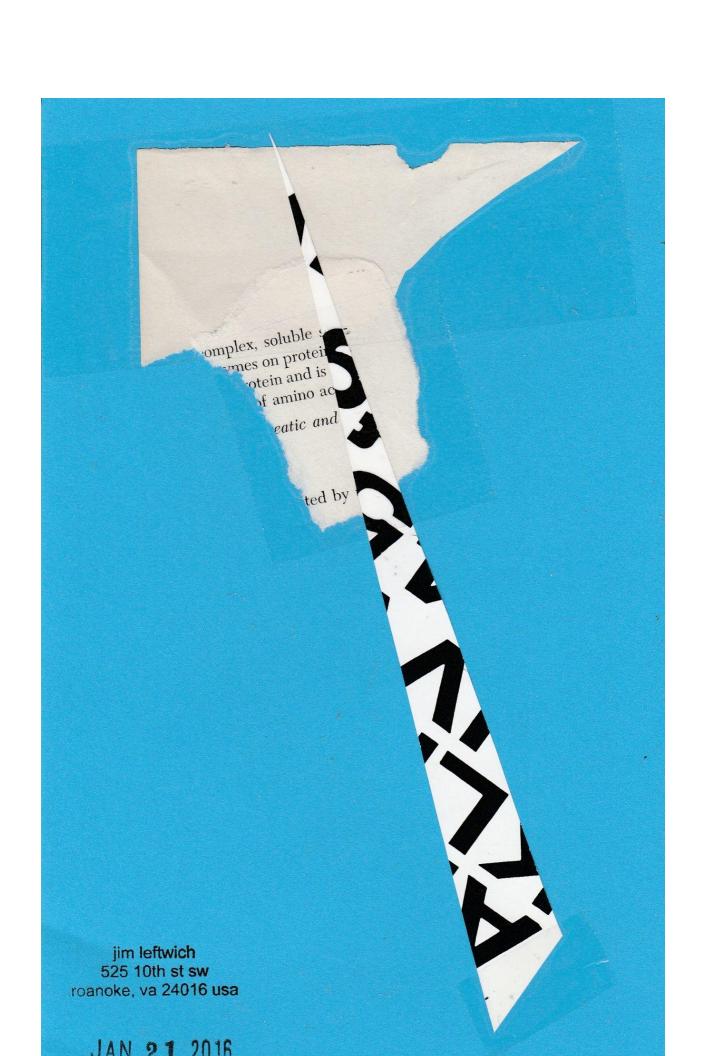
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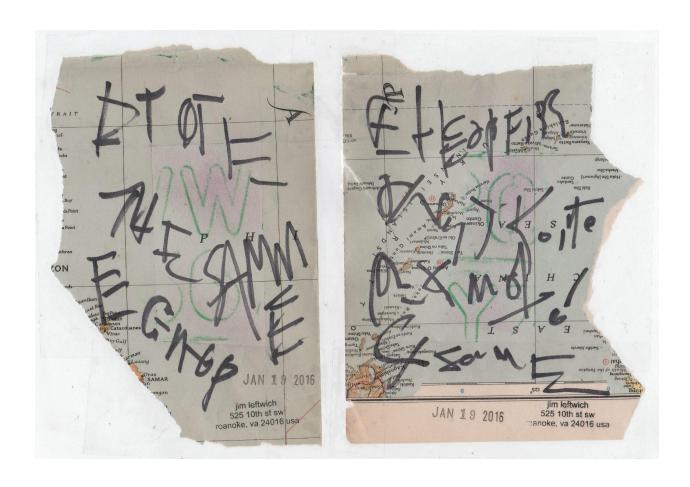
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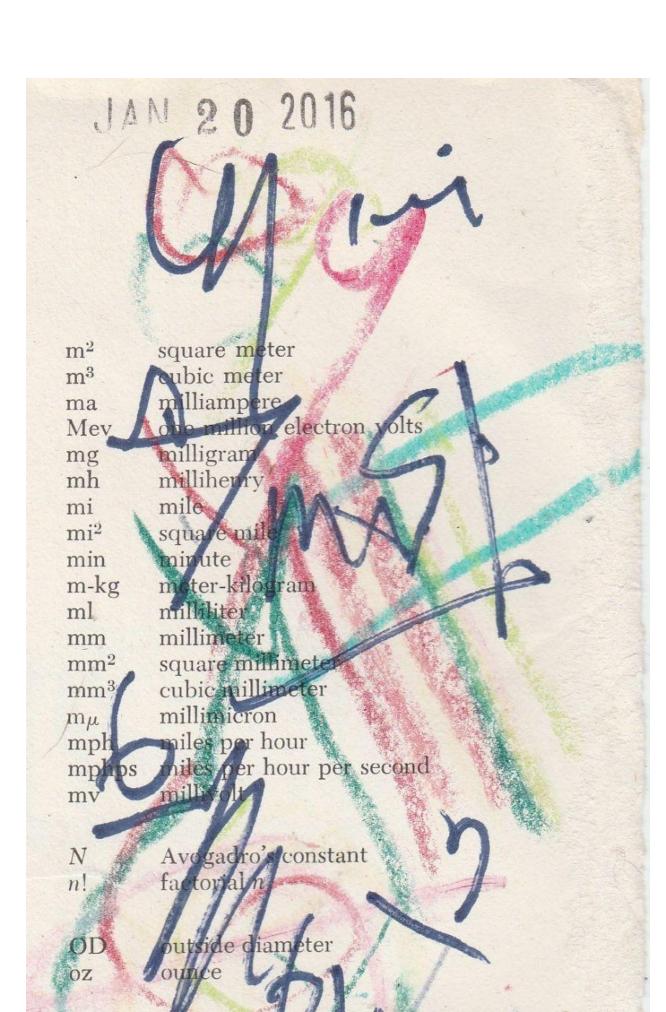
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SCIENTIFIC SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIA

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LI







JAN 07 2016



rent in the cooler can be reversed so that the bottle is warmed to the ideal drinking temperature by the time the alarm wakes the baby's mother. In a thermoelectric "hos ess cart" or "buffet bar," heating and cooling are used simultaneously in two adjacent compartments of a rolling cart, to keep food hot or cold, ready to serve

The same air conditioner that cools a house of the summer can be used to heat it during the winter. A large thermoelectric heat pump can move heat either into the house or out of it, depending on the direction of current flow through the device. In either direction, the efficiency can be greater than 100 percent if the temperature difference to be achieved is not too large. In mild climates, this type of home heating could, therefore, be more economical to operate than normal electrical heating. Again, as in most large-scale applications, the initial cost of the device is relatively high.

Assessment. Thermoelectric devices in ever-increasing numbers will continue to be used in various small scale specialized applications for which they are ideally suited Many large-scale applications have been suggested, home heating and air conditioning to and automotive generators to repla internal ne practical only if tion engines. These schemes will beco further research in solid-state physic ads to new inexpensive materials with much larger velectric figure of ment than those pre y available.

(Ja.H.W./Ra.W.)

Thermionic devices

Thermionic devices convert heat directly into electricity by means of thermionic emission—the ejection of elec-trons from a heated surface—rather than by changing it first to some other form of energy. Heat for the device is supplied by chemical, solar, or nuclear sources. It differs somewhat from the vacuum diode, primarily in the source of heat for the cathode.

Thermionic emission is the liberation of electrons from a hot cathode, or emitter. The emisted electrons travel a hot cathode, or emitter. The through a vacuum or gas-filled space to a cool anode. or collector. Useful electrical power can be extracted by a load—a resistor or other impedance device—connected between the cathode and anode. The phenomenon was first observed in the middle of the 1841 century by Charles DuFay, a French experimenter, who no a heated solid conducts electricity. In 1853 Edmund Becquerel, a French physicist, reported that a measurable electric current could be produced by a potential of a few voltain air if the air was heated between hot platinum plattices. Toward the end of the 19th century in Germany. Julius Elster and Hans Geitel, experimenting on a sealed device that contained two electrodes, noted that charges flowed from the heated electrode to the cooled electrod

Thermionic emission was identified by Thomas A. Edison in 1883 when he observed that a current passed from lamp to a a heated filament of an incandescent electric conductor in the same glass bulb. Later, W.H. Preece J.A Fleming, two English scientists, showed that this effect was produced by electrons flowing through the vacuum from the heated cathode to the anode. J.J. Thomson, and English physicist, in 1897 recognized that electrons exist in solids and described thermionic emission as the ing off" of free electrons from solids into a vacuum cavity

(see also ELECTRONICS: Electron tubes).

Another English physicist, O.W. Richardson, in 1916 identified the thermionic work function (a measure of the energy required for an electron to free itself from the surface of the metal) and determined emission current density with the aid of kinetic theory. His theory was subsequently corrected by S. Dushman, a U.S. scientist (1930), following the discovery by Enrico Fermi of electron properties in metals (1927). The basic expression for emission current is thus called the Richardson-Dushman equation.

The development of thermionic converters was delayed until the 1950s when the impetus of space exploration promoted renewed interest. A vacuum thermionic converter and the cesium-filled thermionic converter were developed shortly after 1955. shortly after 1955.

EFFICIENCIES

A thermionic converter is a device with a heated electron emitter (cathode) electrically insulated from a cooled collector (anode), with the gap between them either a vacuum of filled with a metallic vapour. The elements are placed n a gas-tight envelope, with provisions for connecting a source to the cathode, a coolant to the anode, and electrical leads to a l

Typically, the emitter operates at a temperature near ,000 K (3,140° F), and the collector at 1,000 K (1,340° F). he operation of a thermionic converter is influenced by number of physical characteristics:

fermi energy. The Fermi energy, or Fermi level, of a solid is the maximum energy that electrons in a solid may reach, even at absolute zero, because of the crowding

of electrons.

function. The work function is the energy that must be imparted to an election near the Fermi level of a he to get the electron out of the solid into a cavity. The work function of tungsten, a typical material for emitters, is 4.52 electron volts (eV), but a collector work function of 0.6 eV has been obtained

Ionization potential. The ionization potential is the energy that must be imparted to an atom to remove an atomic electron and move it an infinite distance away, making it a free electron. The atom is then said to be

nized

Thermionic current density. The thermionic current density Je of a solid is given by the Richardson-Dushman equation in the form:

$J_c = AT^2 \exp(-1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ y /kT}) \text{ amperes/cm}^2$

based on the projected area of the electrode, in which A = 120.4 amperes per square centimetre K^2 for an ideal metal, for T in kelvins, Ψ is the work function in electron volts; k is the Boltzmann constant, with the numerical value 1,38 × 10⁻²³ joule/K. (If the temperature T is measured in kelvins, the quantity kT has the dimensions of an energy and is usually called the thermal energy.) At 300 K (room temperature), $kT/1.6 \times 10^{-19} = 0.0259$ electron volt, Among real materials, 4 varies: 60.2 for tungsten, molybdenum, and tantalum; 330 for zirconium; 17,000 for platinum; 1.4 for alumina; 1.1 × 10⁻⁵ for magnesia.

THE VACUUM CONVERTER

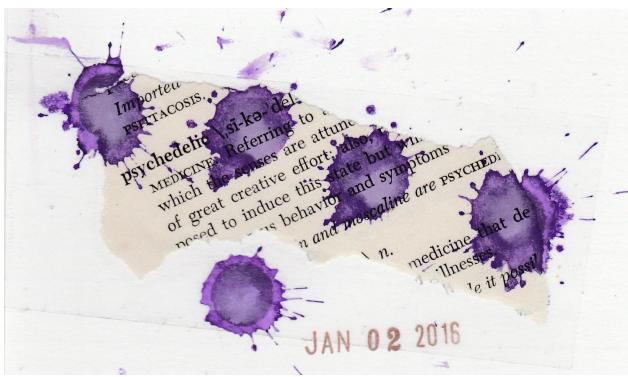
In a thermicate converter with a vacuum gap between the electrodes, the electron gas is boiled out of the heated cathode at a high temperature and passed through the vacuum to a colder anode. The electron gas is then condensed at the anode, which is cooled to maintain a lower tem-perature than the eathode. The electron gas then passes through the external circuit and back to the cathode side

o deliver electric power.
Electrons pass through a retarding electrostatic field. The base line corresponds to the potential of the electron in the cathode or the emitter. Heat lifts some of these elece work function barrier at the surface of the rous over soon as an electron escapes the surface of the emitter if enters into the vacuum gap with other emit-ted electrons, encountering a parding potential or space charge potential because of repulsion by other electrons in the gan Only those electrons with initially sufficient energy to pass over the peak of the potential can reach de. The anode also emits at its temperature, the anod but the ne ectron flow is from the cathode to the anode whose work function is Ψ_c . The net output given by the difference in electric potentials (or collec produced these work functions and after deducting the space char potentials

space charge effect, the vacuum gap or interspacing has to be 0.001 inch (0.025 millimetre) electroc or less. ith both electrode surfaces of tungsten impregnated with oxides of barium, aluminum, and calcium, a current density of three amperes per square can be obtained with a cathode temperature of maximum current departs and with a cathode temperature of 2,308° F (1,264° C) and an anode temperature of 1,000° F (nearly 538° C). The simulational yield a maximum output of one catt p.525u10thcstisione at 0.7 volts, one of 1210 13224016 usautput of 10 maximum giving an efficiency of 10 to 24016 wsautput of 10

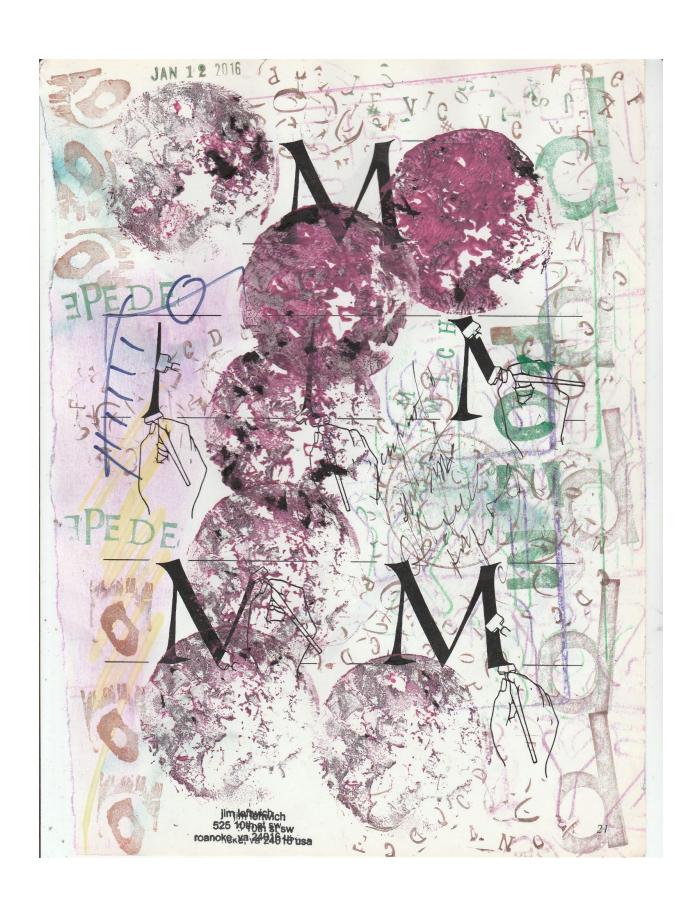
Electrostatic field

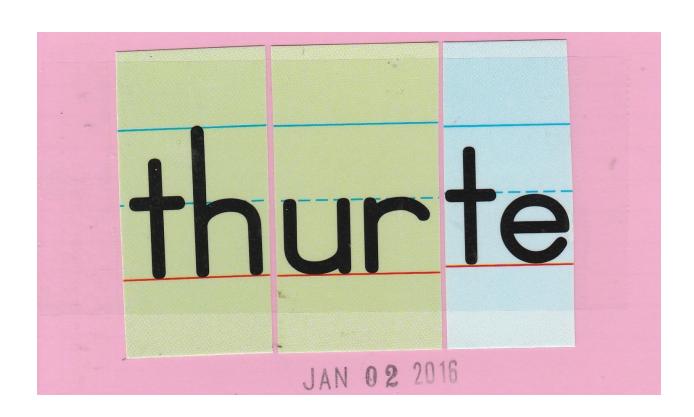
Thermionic work function

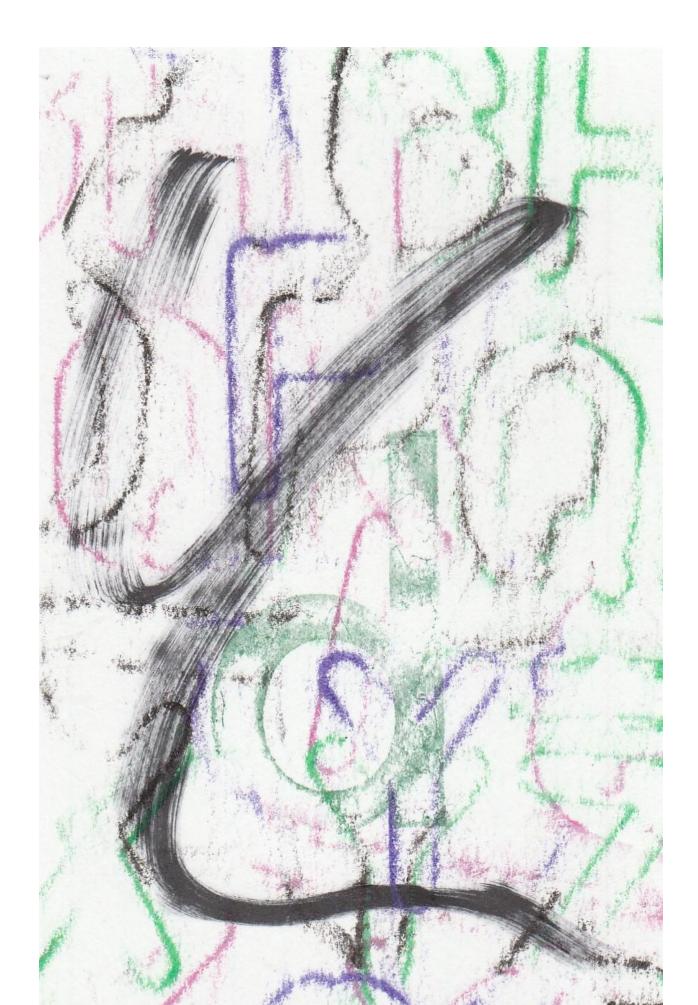


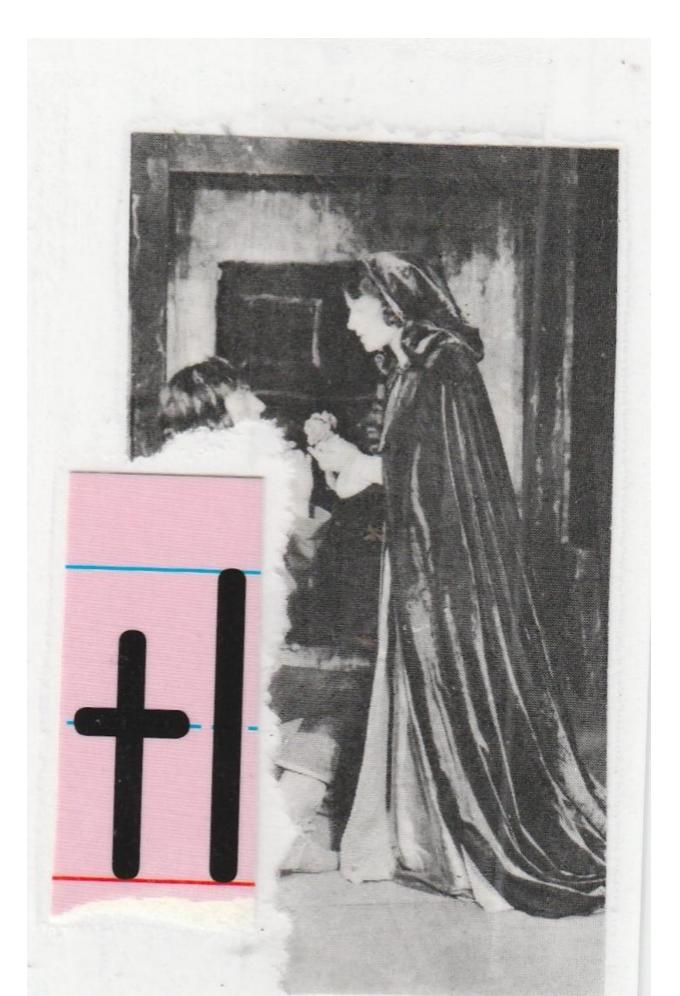
















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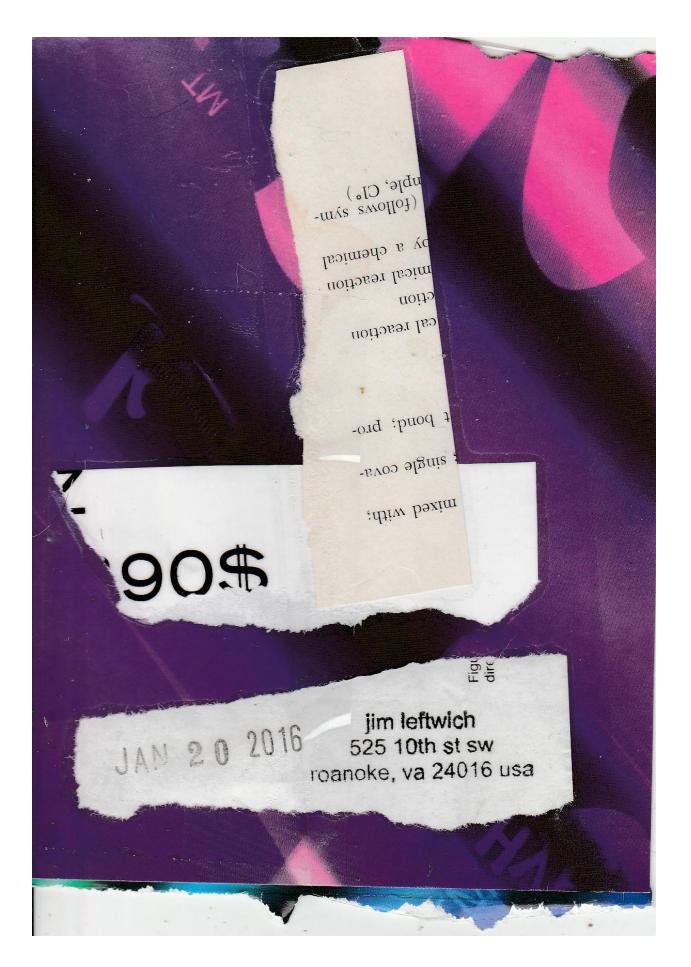
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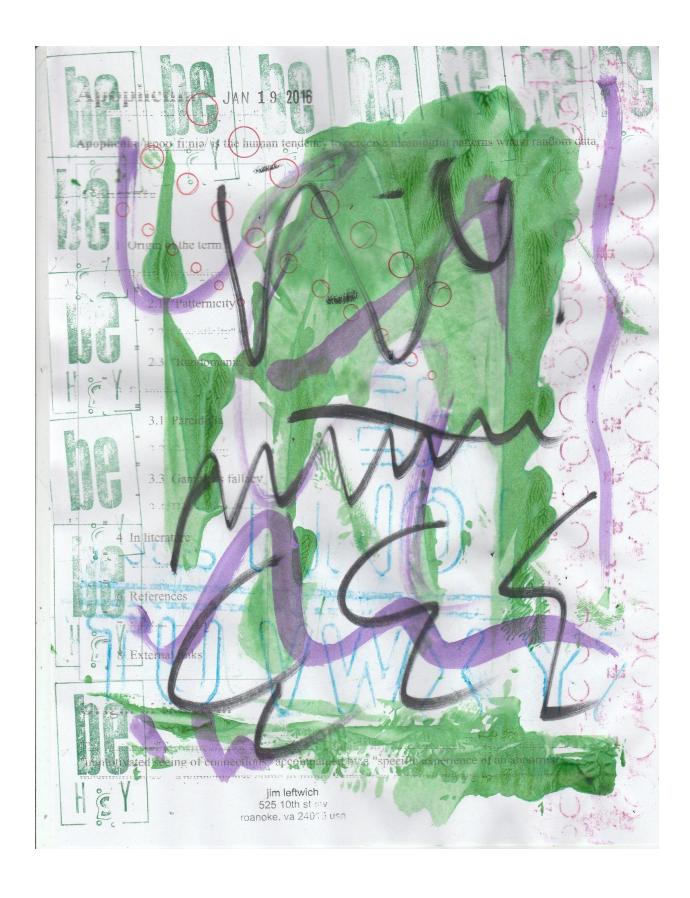
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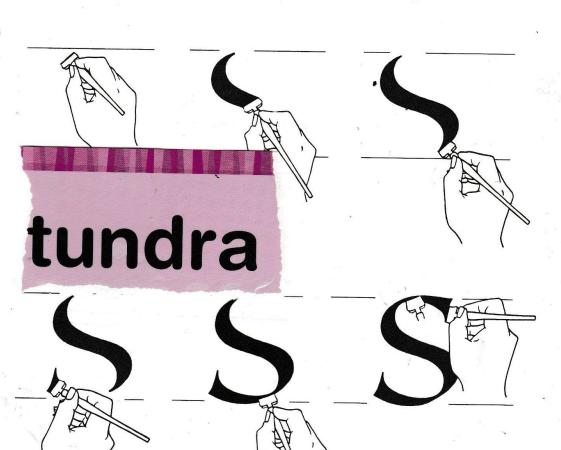


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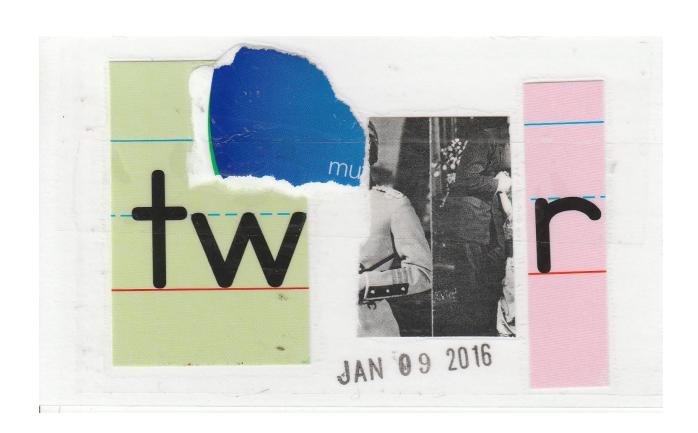
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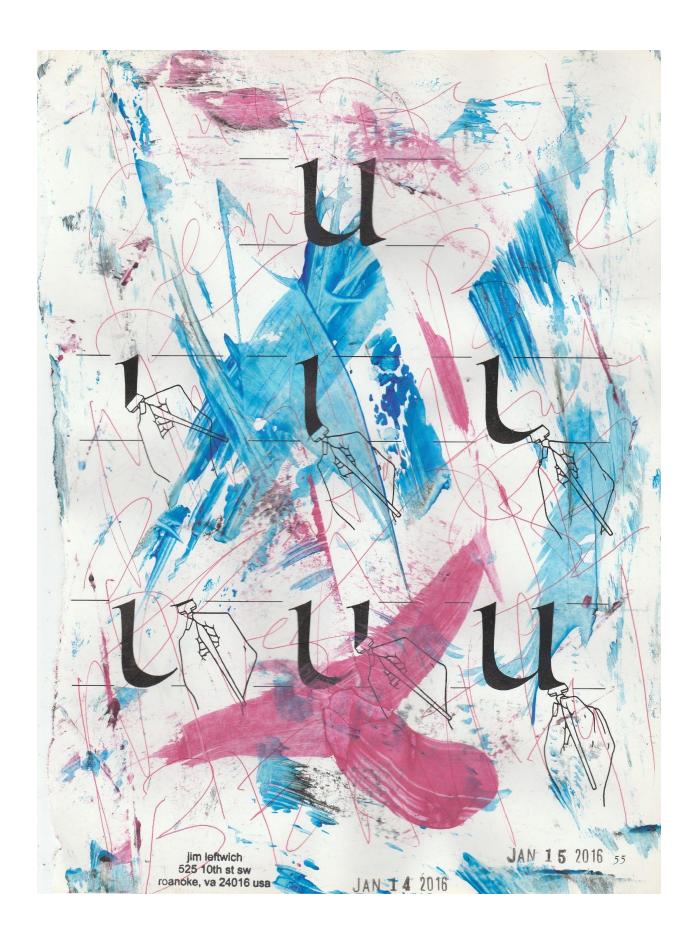
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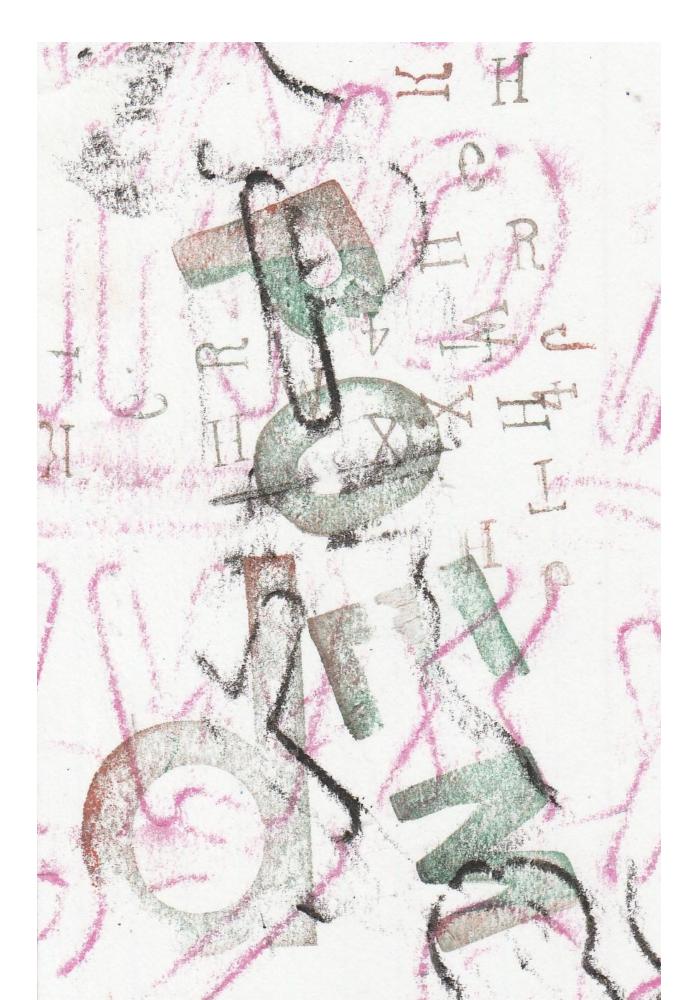


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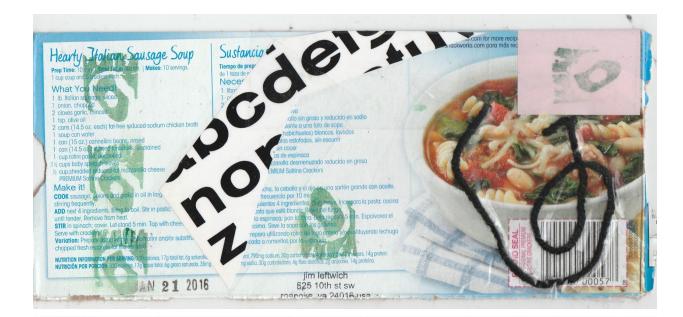
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The first artificial nuclemented the high-speed protons. PARTICLE

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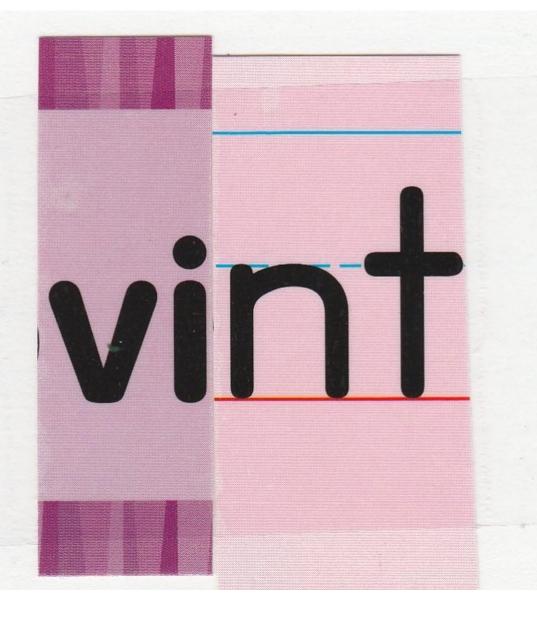
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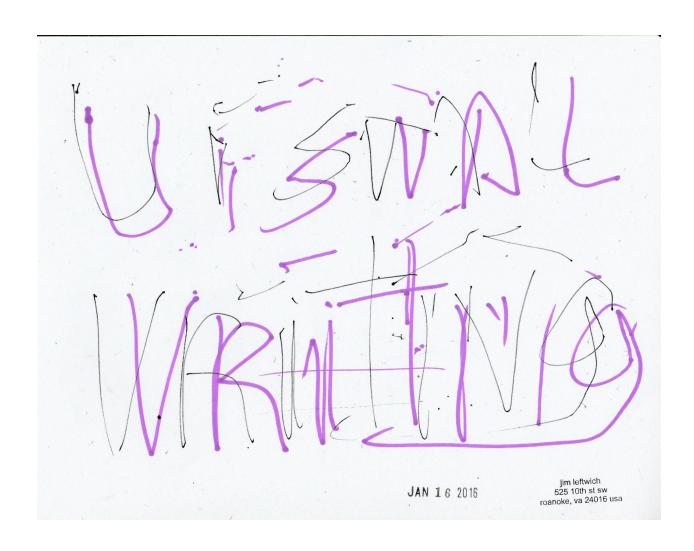
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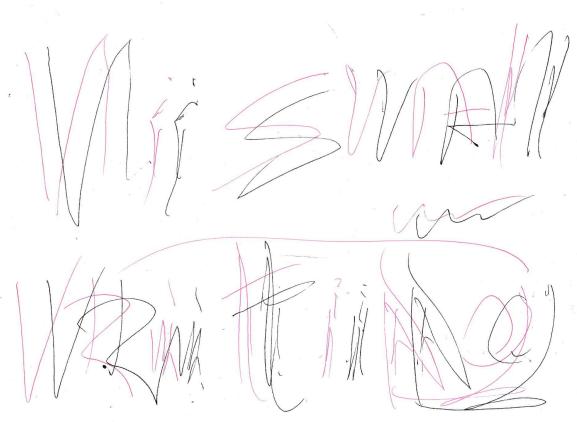
> an electrical conductor to connect the a powder particles with the cathode, a cannite of the cell. When a current flow dioxide was reduced to manganous oxide. nanganese əqi ui pe served as the centre of the jar was a porosolution. In a mixture protected from corro it could produce a large current) it remained a laboratory to 20 years.
>
> Curiosity for 20 years.
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> The first dry cell was invented about 1865 by Georges in first dry cell was invented about 1865 by Georges wietly used primary cells. In its original form (see Figure 43), it consisted of a glosse in the filled with the electrolyte, an ammonium enlorined.
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> The shorted in the course of a glosse in the control of the control of a glosse in the control of

by Barteries (© 1950), John Wiley & Sons, Inc. (1800) Figure 41: Alessandro Volta's (top) pile and (botto 525 10th st sw roanoke, va 24016 usa jim leftwich

Energy Conversion 517







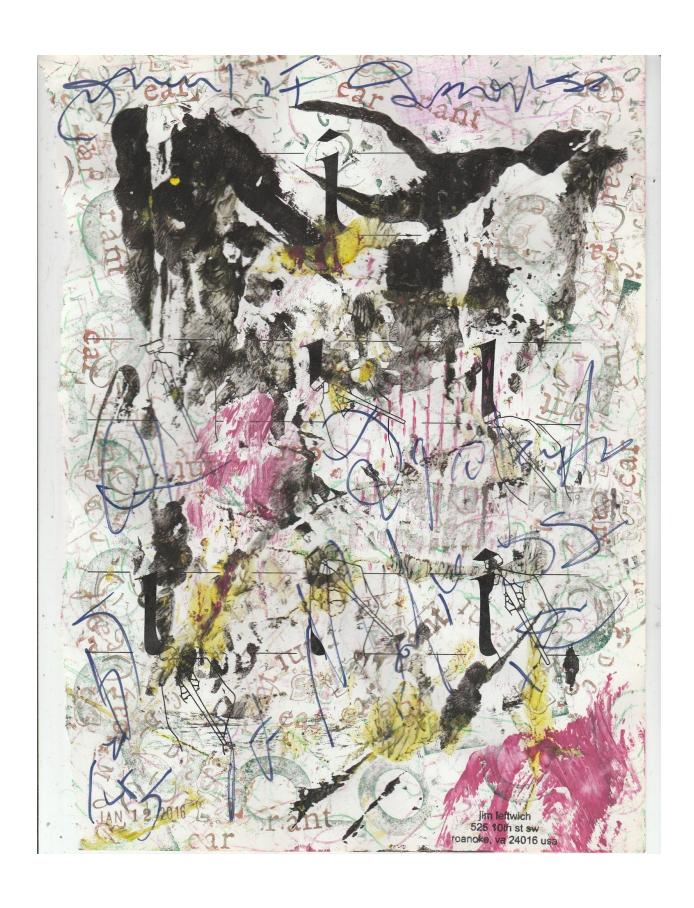
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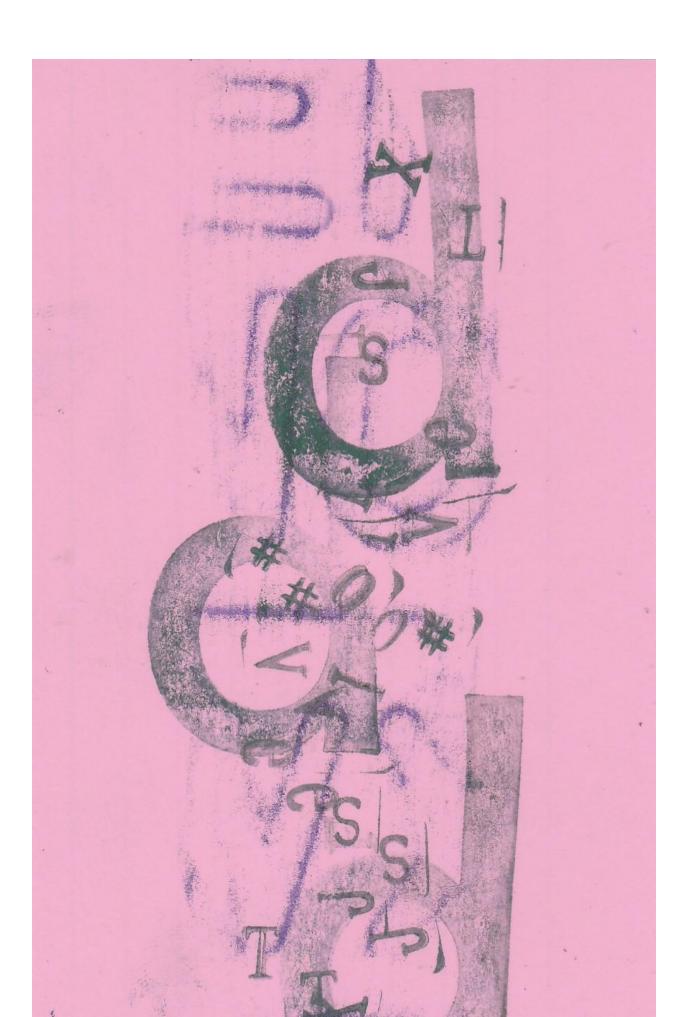








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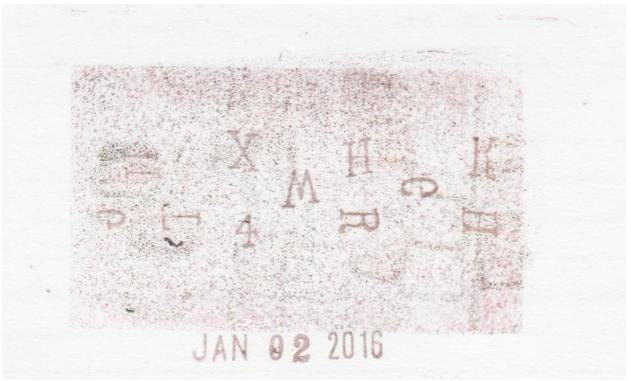






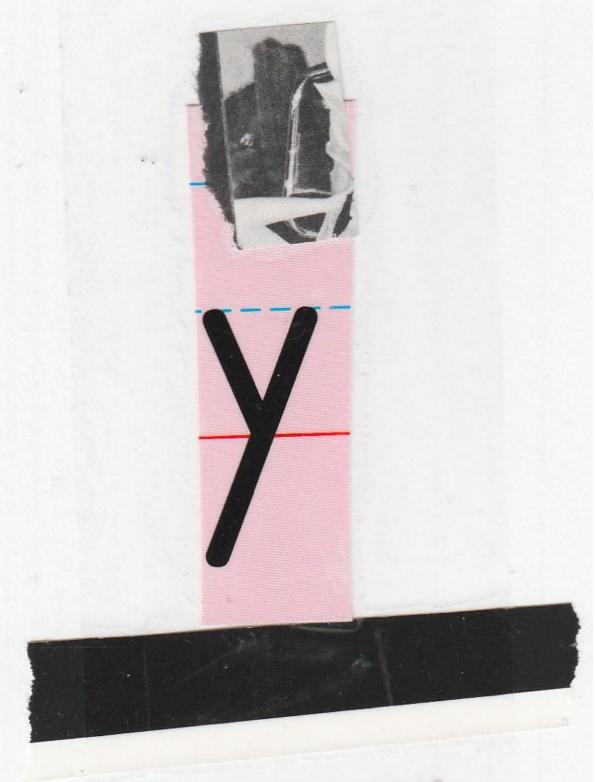


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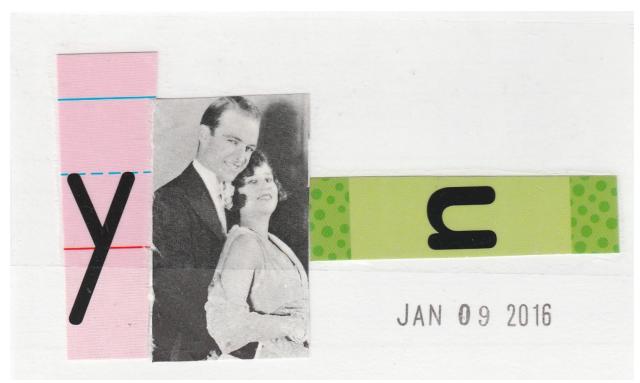


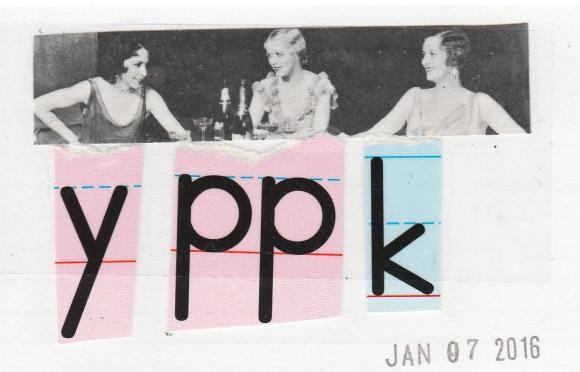


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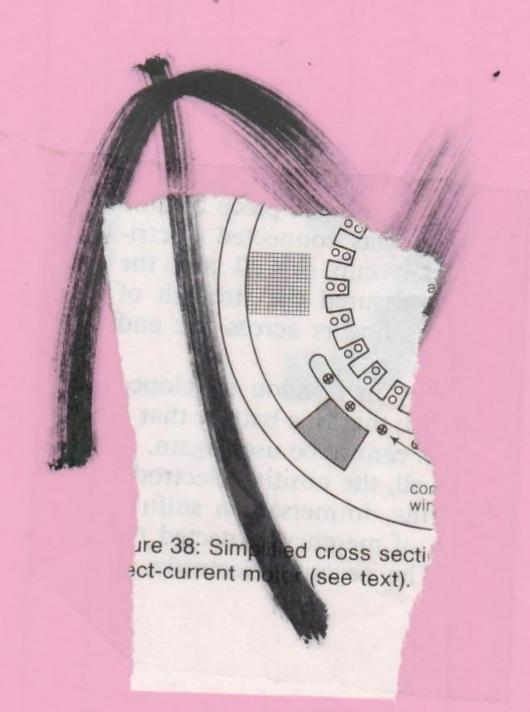






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